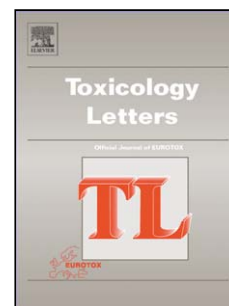


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Antigenotoxic effects of quercetin, rutin and ursolic acid on HepG2 cells: Evaluation by the comet assay

Authors: A.A. Ramos^{1,3}, C.F. Lima¹, M.L. Pereira², M. Fernandes-Ferreira³, C. Pereira-Wilson^{1*}

¹*CBMA - Molecular and Environment Biology Centre/Department of Biology,
University of Minho, 4710-057 Braga, Portugal*

²*Department of Biology, CICECO, University of Aveiro, 3810-193 Aveiro, Portugal*

³*CMPBP - Centre of Molecular Physiology and Biotechnology of Plants/Department of
Biology, University of Minho, 4710-057 Braga, Portugal*

Corresponding author: * Cristina Pereira-Wilson; telephone +351 253604318; fax
+351 253678980; e-mail cpereira@bio.uminho.pt

Abstract

In the present study, the chemoprotective effects of quercetin, rutin and ursolic acid on *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide (*t*-BHP)-induced DNA damage in a human hepatoma cell line (HepG2) were investigated by the comet assay. To determine whether protection was due to direct chemical interactions alone or to cellular mediated responses three different types of treatments were used: simultaneous incubation of cells with individual test compounds and the toxicant; pre-treatment with test compound before addition of the toxicant followed or not by a recovery period. The expression of Hsp70 was quantified by Western blotting to test the involvement of heat shock proteins in the cellular responses to the test compounds. In addition, effects on proliferation were evaluated by the MTT assay. The results show that quercetin and ursolic acid prevented DNA damage and had antiproliferative properties in HepG2 cells suggesting an anticarcinogenic potential for these compounds. The protective effects of quercetin against *t*-BHP induced DNA damage seem to be due to both direct effects on *t*-BHP toxicity and to cellularly mediated indirect effects which reflect the potentiation of the cellular antioxidant defenses. Ursolic acid seems to exert effects only through cellularly mediated mechanisms since it was not protective in simultaneous incubation. Quercetin and ursolic acid also showed to increase the rate of DNA repair. Rutin did not have effects at any level. These results, obtained with liver cells, emphasize and confirm the chemopreventive potential of quercetin and ursolic acid, which may help explain the lower cancer incidence in human population with high dietary intakes of fruits and vegetables. These results also demonstrate that Hsp70 is not involved in the observed effects in HepG2.

Keywords: Quercetin; Rutin; Ursolic Acid; HepG2 cells; Comet assay; Antigenotoxic effects

27 1. Introduction

28 Human cells are continuously exposed to reactive oxygen species (ROS) of both
 29 endogenous and exogenous sources. When excessive amounts of ROS are produced, a
 30 disturbance in the pro-oxidant/antioxidant balance in favour of the pro-oxidant state
 31 may occur, which may lead to cell damage (Valko et al., 2006). In particular, DNA
 32 damage combined with insufficient DNA repair are known to be associated with
 33 carcinogenesis (Olinski et al., 2002; Klaunig and Kamendulis, 2004). Thus, prevention
 34 of such damage or induction of repair could prevent the carcinogenic process.

35 Considerable epidemiological evidence suggests that diets high in fruit and vegetables
 36 are inversely related to risk of degenerative diseases such as coronary artery disease and
 37 certain cancers (Stanner et al., 2004; Collins A.R., 2005). Flavonoids, such as quercetin
 38 (Q) and rutin (R), are among the most abundant antioxidant compounds in vegetables
 39 and fruits (Aherne and O'Brien, 2002). Ursolic acid (UA) is a pentacyclic triterpenic
 40 acid that also occurs naturally in a large variety of vegetarian foods and medicinal plants
 41 (Liu, 1995). Q, R and UA are among the plant compounds to which hepatoprotective
 42 activities have been attributed (Joyeux et al., 1990; Martin-Aragon et al., 2001; Janbaz
 43 et al., 2002). However, in spite of their common hepatoprotective properties, Q and R
 44 (one of quercetin's glycosides) have high free radical scavenging activity (Ross and
 45 Kasum, 2002) whereas the more lipophilic triterpenoid UA is virtually inactive as free
 46 radical scavenger (Lo et al., 2002). This suggests different mechanisms of action for the
 47 3 compounds. These compounds have also been reported as antigenotoxic in various *in*
 48 *vitro* models (Aherne and O'Brien, 2000a; Russo et al., 2000; Lo et al., 2002; Ross and
 49 Kasum, 2002).

50 Natural compounds play important roles in multiple mechanisms, which may be
 51 responsible for their anticarcinogenic effects. Antioxidant activity and iron quelating
 52 activities as well as inhibition of bioactivating (phase I) enzymes and induction of
 53 detoxifying (phase II) enzymes (De Flora, 1998; Marchand, 2002; Galati and O'Brien,
 54 2004) may provide protection against cancer initiation (antigenotoxic effects). Natural
 55 compounds may also contribute to cancer prevention by modulating DNA repair
 56 systems (De Flora, 1998; Collins et al., 2003). In addition, inhibition of proliferation of
 57 damaged cells would also be beneficial.

58 Recently some studies have suggested the participation of heat shock proteins,
 59 mainly Hsp70, in the induction of DNA repair (Kenny et al., 2001; Mendez et al.,

2003a; Niu et al., 2006) through effects on apurinic/apyrimidinic endonuclease (Kenny et al., 2001; Mendez et al., 2003b) and polymerase β (Mendez et al., 2003a). Hsp may also be involved in prevention of DNA damage since depletion of Hsp70 associated to oxidative stress has also been shown to induce lysosomal membrane permeabilization and release of redox-active iron, which may contribute to DNA damage (Nylandsted et al., 2004; Doulias et al., 2007).

Organic hydroperoxides, and in particular model compounds such as *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide (*t*-BHP), have been shown to cause oxidative DNA damage by promoting the formation of alkaline labile sites and single strand breaks (Guidarelli et al., 1997). Iron dependent mechanisms seem to be involved (Sestili et al., 1998). This type of damage is easily monitored by the comet assay (SCGE) single cell gel electrophoresis (Lima et al., 2006).

The aim of this study was to evaluate by the comet assay the effects of Q, R and UA (Fig. 1) on *t*-BHP-induced DNA damage, in HepG2 cells. To differentiate mechanisms potentially involved in the antigenotoxic properties of the test compounds, three types of treatment were used: 1) simultaneous treatment (cells exposed simultaneously to test compounds and *t*-BHP) where effects include direct chemical interaction between test compounds and toxicant; 2) pre-treatment (cells incubated with test compounds for 24 h before exposure to the toxicant) and 3) pre-treatment with recovery period (cells incubated as above and followed by a 2 h recovery period in fresh medium) to determine the contribution of intracellular effects induced in response to the test compounds. In view of the possible involvement of Hsp's in the induction of DNA repair enzymes and in lysosomal stabilisation, we also evaluated effects on Hsp70 expression in response to the test compounds. The effects on cell proliferation were also tested.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Chemicals

Quercetin, rutin, ursolic acid, *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide, HEPES (N- [2-hydroxyethyl] piperazine-*N'*- [2-ethane-sulfonic acid]), Minimum Essential Medium Eagle (MEM), antibiotic-antimycotic solution, trypsin solution, 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazole-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide (MTT), 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH), Bradford Reagent, Monoclonal anti-HSP70 (clone BRM-22)

and monoclonal anti-HSP70 (clone C92F3A-5) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA) and Stressgen Biotechnologies, Corp. (Victoria, B.C., Canada), respectively. Peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-mouse antibody, and ECL western blotting detection reagent were purchased from GE Healthcare, UK. Fetal Bovine Serum was purchased from Biochrom KG (Berlin, Germany). All others reagents were of analytical grade.

2.2. Antiradical activity

The free radical scavenging (antiradical) activity of the tested compounds was studied against the stable free radical DPPH as elsewhere (Lima et al., 2006). Trolox was used in this experiment as a positive control.

2.3. Cell culture

The HepG2 cell line was obtained from ATCC and cultured in 75 cm² polystyrene flasks (Falcon) with MEM supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% antibiotic-antimycotic solution, 1 mM sodium pyruvate, 10 mM HEPES and 1.5 g/l sodium bicarbonate under an atmosphere of 5% CO₂ at 37°C. For the following experiments the test compounds were dissolved in dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO - final concentration below 1%) and controls received DMSO only. *tert*-Butyl hydroperoxide was dissolved in cell culture medium.

2.4. Cell toxicity and proliferation assays

The test compound's cytotoxicity was assayed in 24-multiwell culture plates seeded with 1.25×10^5 cells/well. Twenty four hours after plating, test compounds were added and 24 h and 72 h later cytotoxicity was estimated by the lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) leakage assay according to the method previously described (Lima et al., 2005). Results were expressed as percentage of cell viability from the control (cells without any test compound). From this, concentrations of test compound without cytotoxicity were selected.

Effects on cell proliferation were tested in 96-multiwell culture plates at a density of 7.5×10^3 cells/well. Twenty four hours after plating, the medium was discarded and fresh medium containing test compounds at different concentrations was added. The MTT test was performed at the end of two incubation regimes: 1) a period of 24 h of incubation with compounds, followed by a period of 48 h with fresh culture

127 medium without tested compounds; 2) a period of 72 h with the tested compounds. The
 128 number of viable cells in each well was estimated by the cell capacity for reduction of
 129 MTT as described by Silva et al. (2006). The results were expressed as percentage of
 130 cell proliferation relative to control (cells without any test compound). For that, MTT
 131 reduction at the beginning of incubation ($t = 0$ h), was subtracted from all the
 132 experimental conditions used above, including the control.

133

134 2.5. Effects on DNA (Antigenotoxic effects)

135 To study the genotoxic effects of *t*-BHP, HepG2 cells were plated for 16 h after
 136 which the medium was discarded and medium containing *t*-BHP at different
 137 concentrations (0-1000 μ M) was added. One hour after, the genotoxic effects of *t*-BHP
 138 were evaluated by alkaline version of the comet assay. Incubations with 200 μ M for 1 h
 139 were chosen to evaluate the protection conferred by the test compounds quercetin (Q),
 140 rutin (R) and ursolic acid (UA).

141 To study the antigenotoxic effects of Q, R and UA, three different types of
 142 treatments were performed: 1) cells were simultaneously exposed for 1 h to *t*-BHP and
 143 one test compound at different concentrations (ST); 2) pre-treatment (PT) with Q, R or
 144 UA at different concentrations for 24 h before medium change and exposure to *t*-BHP
 145 for 1 h; and, 3) pre-treatment with recovery period (PTR) – cells incubated as above and
 146 allowed a 2 h recovery period in fresh culture medium. A previous report (Aherne and
 147 O'Brien, 2000b) has shown that a 2 h recovery period is within the linear phase of
 148 single strand breaks repair.

149 Effects of the test compounds against *t*-BHP-induced DNA damage were
 150 evaluated by comet assay. In the PTR, DNA repair rate (RR) was calculated using the
 151 formula:

$$152 \text{ RR} = (D_0X - D_2X) / D_0X \times 100$$

153 where D_0X represent DNA damage before recovery period in the condition X and D_2X
 154 represent DNA damage after 2 h recovery period in the condition X.

155

156 2.6. Comet assay

157 The alkaline version of the single cell gel electrophoresis assay was used to
 158 evaluate DNA damage as previously described by Lima et al. (2006) for HepG2 cells.
 159 For analysis of the comet images, the extent of DNA damage was estimated by
 160 fluorescence microscopy using the semiquantitative method of visual scoring (Duthie,

2003). Briefly, for each sample, 100 cells were analysed and classified visually into one of five classes according to the intensity of fluorescence (DNA) in the comet tail: class 0 (no damage) to class 4 (great damage, almost all DNA in tail). An overall score from 0 to 400 (arbitrary units) was attributed to each sample.

165

166 2.7. *Hsp 70 protein expression*

167 The effect of 24 h incubation with Q (50 μ M), R (50 μ M) or UA (25 μ M) on
168 Hsp70 expression was monitored by western blotting. A positive control was used
169 where cells were heated at 42°C for 1h, without test compounds, and allowed to recover
170 for 16h at 37°C. Protein concentration was measured with the Bradford Reagent and
171 20 μ g/well were separated on 8% SDS-PAGE and transferred to PVDF membranes.
172 Membranes were blocked and incubated separately with each of the two monoclonal
173 anti-HSP70s (1:4,000 dilution) for 1 h at room temperature and incubated with the
174 secondary antibody diluted 1:30,000 for 1 h at room temperature. Band area intensity
175 was quantified using the densitometry software SigmaScan 1.0 (Jandel Scientific, Scan
176 Rafael, CA, USA). The results were expressed as percentage of control (cells without
177 any test compound or heat treatment).

178

179 2.8. *Statistical analysis*

180 Results were expressed as mean \pm SEM. Significant differences ($P < 0.05$) within
181 treatment groups were determined by one-way ANOVA followed by the Student-
182 Newman-Keuls multiple comparison test. Between PT and PTR significant differences
183 were determined by two-way ANOVA followed by the Student-Newman-Keuls
184 multiple comparison test.

185

186 3. Results

187 3.1. *Antiradical activity*

188 The antiradical activity of the 3 tested compounds was evaluated by the ability to
189 scavenge the free radical DPPH (Table 1). As expected, Q and R showed high
190 antiradical activity, with Q showing the highest activity. Ursolic acid did not show the
191 capacity to scavenge DPPH even at the high dose (200 μ M).

192

193 3.2. *Cytotoxic and antiproliferative effects*

194 In order to establish dose and exposure times, preliminary evaluations of test
 195 compounds' toxicity were done using LDH leakage as indicator. Treatment for 24 h
 196 with the different concentrations of R and UA had no significant effect on extracellular
 197 LDH activity (Table 2). Q significantly decreased cell viability only at 100 μ M (high
 198 concentration tested) when incubated for 24 h. When cells were incubated for 72 h, cell
 199 damage was apparent at concentrations higher than 25 μ M for Q and higher than 50 μ M
 200 for UA (Table 2). Rutin had no cytotoxic effects. In antigenotoxicity experiments
 201 compounds were used at non cytotoxic concentrations.

202 Effects on proliferation were also evaluated. Incubations with Q for 24 h and 72
 203 h induced a concentration dependent inhibition of cell proliferation as determined by
 204 MTT assay (Fig. 2). At 24 h, inhibition was 30% and 45% at 25 and 50 μ M of Q,
 205 respectively (Fig. 2A). Incubations for 72 h exhibited inhibitions of 40% and 86% at
 206 12.5 and 25 μ M of Q, respectively (Fig. 2B). Corroborating the LDH results,
 207 incubations with Q at 50 μ M for 72 h induced cell death, as indicated by the negative
 208 value of cell proliferation seen by the MTT assay. Ursolic acid inhibited cell
 209 proliferation only at 50 μ M when incubated for 72 h, showing 86% inhibition (Fig. 2B).
 210 Antiproliferative effects of Q and UA increased with increasing incubation time. R
 211 showed no effects on proliferation at any of the tested concentrations (Fig. 2).

212

213 3.3. Genotoxic effects of *t*-BHP

214 The concentration of 200 μ M *t*-BHP was chosen to test (1h, 37°C), the potential
 215 antigenotoxic effects of Q, R and UA. This dose and exposure time to the toxicant were
 216 chosen because it was not cytotoxic (data not shown) and produced intermediate levels
 217 of DNA damage (\approx 250 arbitrary units) detectable by the Comet assay (Fig. 3). HepG2
 218 cells incubated for 1 h with or without 200 μ M *t*-BHP were used as positive and
 219 negative controls, respectively.

220

221 3.4. Antigenotoxic effects of Q, R and UA

222 3.4.1 Simultaneous incubation with *t*-BHP

223 The antigenotoxic effects of Q, R or UA against *t*-BHP-induced DNA damage in
 224 simultaneous 1 h incubations were assessed by the comet assay, and Q showed a
 225 concentration-dependent chemoprotection against the oxidative-induced DNA damage
 226 (Fig. 4A). The extent of DNA damage was decreased by 20%, 41% and 57% by 12.5,
 227 25 and 50 μ M of Q, respectively. Contrarily, R and UA at the tested concentrations

were not effective in protecting DNA from *t*-BHP-induced damage under these incubation conditions (Figs. 4B and 4C). None of the test compounds at the higher tested concentration induced DNA damage when incubated without *t*-BHP although at higher concentration 100 μ M Q has been reported to have genotoxic effects (Duthie et al., 1997). In the antigenotoxic experiments, the higher tested concentration of UA was 25 μ M, since cell toxicity was observed for higher concentrations, as indicated by cell morphological observations (data not shown), in the experimental conditions used for the comet assay.

3.4.2. Pre-treatment with or without recovery period

The protection against *t*-BHP induced DNA damage conferred by a 24 h pre-treatment with Q, R or UA to HepG2 cells is shown in figure 5. In the experiments without recovery period (white bars), pre-treatment of HepG2 cells with Q resulted in lower levels of *t*-BHP-induced DNA damage (Fig. 5A). Quercetin at 25 and 50 μ M significantly protected from DNA damage by 17% and 29%, respectively. No decrease in damage induced by *t*-BHP was observed in pre-treatment with R when compared to the positive control (Fig. 5C). In pre-incubations with UA, significant differences were found only for the highest tested concentration (25 μ M) (Fig. 5B). The extent of DNA damage was, in this case, 20% smaller than control.

When the cells were subsequently allowed to recover for 2 h in fresh medium DNA damage decreased significantly in all cases ($P < 0.001$) (Fig. 5 - grey bars). However, significant less DNA damage was observed in cells preincubated with Q (at all tested concentrations) and UA (at 12.5 μ M) compared with the respective control (Figs. 5A and 5B) indicating a significant increase in DNA RR induced by these two compounds (Figs. 5A and 5B - insert). Rutin did not show any effect against *t*-BHP-induced DNA damages with or without recovery period (Fig. 5C).

3.5. HSP70 expression

To verify the potential involvement of Hsp70 on the antigenotoxic properties of compounds we evaluated the effects of Q, R or UA on Hsp70 expression in HepG2 cells. None of the test compounds at the tested concentrations showed a significant induction of Hsp70 expression in cell homogenates, using both the antibodies Sigma (Fig. 6) and Stressgen (inducible form; data not shown). However, heat shock treatment

261 of HepG2 cells (positive control) resulted in the expected induction of Hsp70
 262 expression (Fig. 6).

263

264 4. Discussion

265 In this study, we proposed to evaluate the chemoprotective effects of natural
 266 compounds common in fruits and vegetables, the structurally related flavonoids Q and
 267 R as well as the triterpenoid UA, against DNA damage induced by *t*-BHP. Although all
 268 have been reported to be hepatoprotective, there were major differences between the
 269 three compounds with respect to antiradical activity: Q and R had high free radical
 270 scavenging activity, whereas UA was virtually inactive as free radical scavenger at the
 271 concentrations used (Table 1). In spite of this, Q and UA showed some protective
 272 effects on cellular DNA but R did not, indicating that the hepatoprotective and
 273 anticancer activities of these compounds may be the result of effects other than their
 274 antioxidant activity alone. In this study, oxidative damage was inflicted to HepG2 cells
 275 with *t*-BHP, which acts, by two distinct pathways. One involves cytochrome P450
 276 and/or free iron ions leading to the formation of toxic alkoxyl and peroxy radicals,
 277 which can initiate lipid peroxidation, induce DNA damage, affect cell integrity and form
 278 covalent bonds with cellular molecules, resulting in cell injury (Lin et al., 2000).
 279 Alternatively, *t*-BHP can be metabolized by glutathione peroxidase (GPx) with
 280 formation of oxidized glutathione (GSSG) from its reduced form (GSH). Depletion of
 281 GSH and NADPH oxidation result and are associated with altered Ca^{2+} homeostasis,
 282 which is considered a critical event in the *t*-BHP induced loss of cell viability (Lin et al.,
 283 2000).

284 In order to distinguish possible differences in mechanisms of protection by the
 285 natural test compounds, three types of incubations regimes were used: simultaneous
 286 incubations; pretreatment and pretreatment with recovery period. In simultaneous
 287 incubation only Q (and not R or UA) showed DNA protection whereas in pretreatment
 288 experiments both Q and UA were active. Q and UA also showed induction of DNA
 289 repair as evidenced by the recovery treatment. R was not active at any these levels.

290 In simultaneous incubation experiments natural compounds may protect against
 291 oxidant-induced DNA damage directly either by free radical scavenging activity or by
 292 decreasing free radical production through iron chelation (Anderson et al., 2000; Ross
 293 and Kasum, 2002). The DNA single strand breaks caused by *t*-BHP have been

suggested to be the result of covalent binding of free radicals to DNA through iron dependent mechanisms (Latour et al., 1995; Sestili et al., 1998). In addition to their antiradical activity, both Q and R possess the structural features that enable them to chelate metal ions namely the ortho dihydroxy (catechol) phenolic structure (Rice-Evans et al., 1996). However, only Q was able to prevent *t*-BHP induced DNA damage in HepG2 cells in simultaneous incubations. This may be due to the lower hydrophobicity and bioavailability of R (Lima et al., 2006). Estimates of a compound's hydrophobicity can be made by using the KowWin (LogKow) software (assessable at <http://www.syrres.com>). The estimated Log P for Q is 1.48 and 7.92 for UA, whereas -2.02 is the value estimated for R. Although highly lipophilic, UA did not show DNA protection in simultaneous incubations, which may reflect its low free radical scavenging activity and low iron chelating capacity.

In pre-incubation experiments, in which the cells were exposed to the toxicant in fresh medium after a 24 h pre-incubation with the natural test compound, it is expected that the observed ability to prevent *t*-BHP-induced DNA damage is due to cellularly mediated effects such as increased enzymatic and non-enzymatic cellular antioxidants, inhibition of bioactivating (phase I) enzymes and/or induction of detoxifying (phase II) enzymes. Both Q and UA showed chemoprotective activities against oxidative-induced DNA damage in this type of experiment. In others studies, pre-incubation with Q was also able to decrease DNA damage induced by hydrogen peroxide (Aherne and O'Brien, 1999; Duthie and Dobson, 1999). Several studies have shown that Q as well as other flavonoids can increase cell GSH content, the activity of antioxidant and phase 2 enzymes as well as inhibiting cytochromes P450's (Kang et al., 1999; Ferguson, 2001; Alia et al., 2005; Moon et al., 2006), this could explain our results. Also, UA has been shown to significantly increase levels of non-enzymatic (GSH) and enzymatic antioxidants as well as inhibiting cytochrome P450's (Liu, 1995; Martin-Aragón et al., 2001; Saravanan et al., 2005).

In pre-treatment with recovery period experiments, Q (12.5, 25, 50 μ M) and UA (12.5 μ M) showed significant induction of DNA repair contrarily to what happened in a study by Aherne and O'Brien (2000b). In that study using HepG2, Caco-2, and V79 cells, treated with H₂O₂, Q and R at 50 μ M did not increase the rate of DNA repair. This discrepancy may reflect differences in the methodology such as oxidant used. Although nothing is known about UA's effects on DNA repair enzymes, polyphenols have been

327 suggested to influence DNA repair enzymes through modulation of gene expression
328 (Ferguson, 2001; Ferguson et al., 2004).

329 In summary, the effects of Q seem to be due to effects at several levels that
330 include radical scavenging, iron chelation, modulation of cell antioxidant responses as
331 well as effects on DNA repair capacity. UA protects DNA indirectly through cellularly
332 mediated effects, which include induction of DNA repair. In a recent study Doulias et
333 al., (2007) showed that the stabilisation by Hsp70 of the lysosomal membrane may
334 prevent the leakage of iron ions necessary for Fenton reaction-mediated DNA damage
335 to occur. Some studies have also suggested the involvement of Hsp70 in the activation
336 of DNA repair (Kenny et al., 2001; Mendez et al., 2003a) particularly of base excision
337 repair (BER) enzymes, the type necessary to repair *t*-BHP induced damages. We
338 therefore investigated whether UA effects could be due to Hsp70 induction and
339 prevention of lysosomal iron leakage. Q on the other hand has been known to inhibit
340 Hsp70 induction. We observed no changes on Hsp70 expression induced by Q, R or UA
341 in HepG2. Although not induced by the test compounds Hsp70 was strongly induced by
342 heat shock (used as a positive control). Our results indicate that UA is not an Hsp70
343 inducer and therefore, (as Q) seems not to be exerting its effects through this
344 mechanism in HepG2 cells.

345 Damage to DNA may cause mutations that potentially lead to cancer (Ferguson,
346 2001; Ferguson et al., 2004). Therefore, protection against DNA damage and induction
347 of DNA repair enzymes represent important mechanisms of anticarcinogenic activity of
348 natural compounds. Other mechanisms of anticarcinogenicity include inhibition of
349 damaged cell proliferation by cell cycle arrest and/or induction of apoptosis (Birt et al.,
350 2001). In our study, both Q and UA but not R showed antiproliferative effects in HepG2
351 cells. These are in agreement with previous reports that showed a generalized growth
352 inhibitory effect of Q and UA on several cancer cell lines (Novotny et al., 2001; Alía et
353 al., 2005; Nichenametla et al., 2006; Tian et al., 2006). For longer exposure periods to
354 higher concentrations of Q and UA, the antiproliferative effects were also accompanied
355 by cell toxicity. In agreement with other results using different cell lines (Kuo, 1996;
356 Kim et al., 2005), R did not show antiproliferative effects in HepG2, contrarily to what
357 happened in study by Alía et al. (2005) using HepG2 cells, in which different cell
358 culture conditions were used. Nevertheless, in an *in vivo* situation, dietary R can still
359 play a role in the chemoprevention, since it is known that it can be deglycosylated to
360 yield quercetin in the intestine by colon microflora (Kuo, 1996).

361 In conclusion, in the present study the anticarcinogenic potential of Q and UA
362 were shown through their antigenotoxic and antiproliferative activities on HepG2 cells.
363 The antigenotoxic effects of Q against *t*-BHP seems to be due both to direct effects and
364 cellularly mediated indirect effects, whereas effects of UA are cell mediated. Induction
365 of DNA repair by Q and UA may also contribute for the antigenotoxic effects of these
366 compounds, although more work is necessary to further characterise the effects of these
367 compounds at this level. Their prevention of oxidative DNA damage may help explain
368 the cancer chemopreventive effects associated to a high fruit and vegetable diet.

369

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Tables

Table 1 – Antiradical activity of Q, R and UA as determined by the DPPH assay.

Compound	IC ₅₀ (μM)
Quercetin	11.34 ± 0.04
Rutin	18.27 ± 0.62
Ursolic Acid *	-
Trolox	18.04 ± 0.01

* Maximal concentration tested - 200μM

Table 2 – Effects of Q, R and UA on cellular viability (as % of control) of HepG2 cells as measured by LDH leakage. Incubations were performed for 24h or 72h with different natural compounds concentrations. Mean \pm SEM (n=4). * $P<0.05$ and *** $P<0.001$ when compared to the respective control.

Concentration (μ M)	Cellular Viability (% of control)					
	24h			72h		
	Q	R	UA	Q	R	UA
0	100.0 \pm 1.1	100.0 \pm 0.3	100.0 \pm 1.0	100.0 \pm 1.0	100.0 \pm 0.7	100.0 \pm 0.7
12.5	103.1 \pm 1.3	99.9 \pm 2.6	100.5 \pm 1.1	100.0 \pm 0.6	101.4 \pm 0.8	100.8 \pm 0.2
25	101.1 \pm 0.8	103.0 \pm 0.4	102.6 \pm 1.1	90.5 \pm 1.2***	102.1 \pm 0.6	100.0 \pm 0.4
50	99.4 \pm 0.6	101.0 \pm 0.7	101.5 \pm 1.4	72.4 \pm 1.2***	102.2 \pm 0.5	93.0 \pm 1.2***
100	95.1 \pm 0.5*	100.7 \pm 0.4	95.7 \pm 1.6	71.9 \pm 0.4***	102.4 \pm 0.8	65.4 \pm 1.3***

Figure legends

Fig. 1 – Chemical structures of Q and R (A) as well as UA (B).

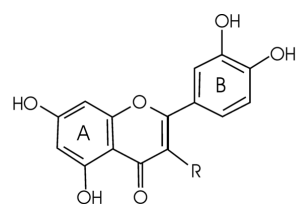
Fig. 2 – Effect of incubation for 24h of Q, R and UA (with a subsequent 48h period with fresh culture medium without natural compounds) (A) and for 72h (B) on HepG2 proliferation measured by the MTT assay. Mean \pm SEM of at least three independent experiments (5 replicates each). * $P < 0.05$ and *** $P < 0.001$ when compared to the respective control.

Fig. 3 – Effect of *t*-BHP on DNA stability of HepG2 cells. DNA damage was assessed by the comet assay. Mean \pm SEM (n=4). *** $P < 0.001$ when compared to control.

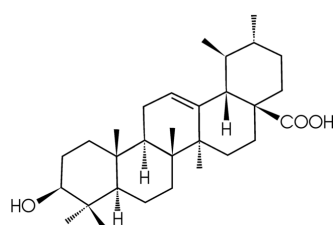
Fig. 4 – Effect of Q (A), UA (B) and R (C) against *t*-BHP (200 μ M, 1h)-induced DNA damage in HepG2 cells, estimated by the comet assay. Mean \pm SEM (n=4). #### $P < 0.001$ when compared to negative control; *** $P < 0.001$ when compared to positive control.

Fig. 5 – Effect of 24h pre-treatment of Q (A) UA (B) and R (C) on *t*-BHP (200 μ M, 1hr)-induced DNA damage in HepG2 cells with (grey bars) or without (white bars) 2h of recovery period. DNA damage was assessed by the comet assay. DNA repair rate of Q, UA and R (respective insert) was calculated with the formula describe in material and methods section. Mean \pm SEM (n=4). #### $P < 0.001$ when compared to respective negative control; * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$ and *** $P < 0.001$ when compared to respective positive control.

Fig. 6 – The effect of 24 h incubation with Q (50 μ M), R (50 μ M) or UA (25 μ M) on the expression of Hsp70, as estimated by Western blotting. In the positive control, HepG2 cells were heated at 42°C for 1h and allowed to recover for 16h at 37°C. Mean \pm SEM (n=3). *** $P < 0.001$ when compared to control.



Compound	R
Quercetin	OH
Rutin	O-rutinoside



Ursolic acid

